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TECHNICAL NOTES

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No. 138

DETERMINATION OF THE VALUE OF WOOD FOR STRUCTURAL PURPOSES.

Communication from the Material Testing Laboratory of the Royal Technical High School at Stuttgart.

By Richard Baumann.

From Technische Berichte, Vol. III, No. 4.

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DETERMINATION OF THE VALUE OF WOOD FOR STRUCTURAL PURPOSES.*

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For more than a century, the employment of wood for structural parts subject to stress has undergone a rapid and continual decline, its place being taken by iron and steel. About ten years ago, however, owing to special requirements, a change began to take place, which was accelerated by the war.

The application of wood to building purposes is limited by the fact that it is much less uniform in its physical characteristics than either iron or steel. The properties of any particular kind of timber often vary considerably between one log and another and even between two parts of the same log, so that great uncertainty exists as to the maximum stresses permissible without risk of failures. Some technical experts in the timber industry claim that they are able to judge the value of wood from its appearance and its behavior when worked (from the shavings, etc.). Experts, however, who can do this, are naturally few and it is not always safe to rely on their judgment, which is chiefly founded on experience gained in an entirely different class of wood

working, where a good appearance and smoothness of surface are of

* From Technische Berichte, Vol.III, No.4, pp. 97-100. (1918).

This communication is intended for engineers, who without possessing botanical knowledge, employ timber for the production of highly stressed parts and who are, therefore, interested in obtaining numerical data on its physical properties, to which little attention is given in botanical literature.

more importance than strength.

In coniferous woods it is customary to attribute special significance to:

- 1. The width of the annual rings, timber with narrow annual rings being considered superior to that with wide rings.
- 2. The density of the air-dried wood, greater strength being expected of heavier timber.
- 3. The ratio between compression strength and density, necessitating the determination of the compression strength and the cutting out of test pieces.

The following article, founded on experimental results, is designed to be of assistance in forming an estimate of the value of timber, based on its structure. It is limited to the consideration of sound straight-grown timber, tested in the direction of the fibers. The influence of defective growth, disease, etc., and the results of tests perpendicular to the fibers will not at first be discussed.

The cross-section of coniferous woods is made up of light rings interposed between hard dark rings, in which the finger nail will make an impression. The transition from one component to the other takes place either gradually (e.g. pine) or abruptly (e.g. fir, Oregon pine, etc.). Fig. 1 shows a cross-section of a Bosnian pine, the few annual rings of the portion under examination being quite broad. Fig. 2, a section through the same timber on a larger scale of magnification (12-fold), is produced

from a thin shaving by transmitted light, and shows the arreatance under a microscope of a smoothly planed piece of cross-cut timber. The annual ring in the middle of Fig. 2 begins at S; the wood in the immediate vicinity of this point grew in the springtime (early wood) and is more porous. This particular ring ends at A; the wood of summer and autumn (late wood) is closer meshed and hence is darker colored, as seen in Figs. 1 and 2. The transition from early wood to late wood takes place gradually. In the middle of the ring a few large pores are visible. These are sections through resin ducts or canals. In addition to these pores, roughly radial lines, marked M M, are observed. The nature of this structure is more clearly brought out under larger magnification. Fig. 3 (150 mag) shows at YY the boundary between the late wood A of the old year and the early wood S of the new year. cells of the autumn wood are narrower, thicker walled and shorter in the direction of the radius than the spring wood. medullary rays M are composed of cells pointing in the direction of the radius of the trunk. The remaining wood also consists of cells which lie in a direction rarallel to the axis of the trunk. Fig. 4 (30 mag) shows this in a longitudinal section in a circumferential direction. It also shows the length and arrangement of the wood cells, as well as sections of radial marks (some of which, in the middle of the micro-photograph, consist of resin ducts). With larger magnification (Fig. 5 - 150 mag) the inner structure of the wood cells appears, showing numerous circular spots, which, however, will not be further dealt with here.

Vood consists principally of crosswise interlaced series of cells, most of which run in the direction of the trunk axis (ordinarily called wood fibers) while others are arranged in a radial direction (pith rays or markings). The wood fibers show very different wall thickness and structure according to the growth (Figs. 2 and 3) and hence different powers of resistance.

In order to obtain figures for a comparison of the hardness of the wood at different parts of the annual rings, the cone test was employed. For the purpose of determining the hardness at different points of one and the same annual ring (a very narrow area) a cone point of 90° was pressed with a load of 2.2 kg (4.85 lb) against the cross-section, so as to produce only small impressions. As hardness number, the ratio of the pressure in kg. to the area of indentation, is taken. From the curves of the hardness numbers across six annual rings of the Bosnian pine under consideration, it is clearly seen that the hardness of the early wood S is only a fraction of the late wood A. The smallest observed value is 2.24 and the greatest 15.2 kg/mm².

For further investigation, flat strips 0.5 to 1.2 mm thick and 5 to 9 mm wide were split off from different parts of one of the annual rings and their tenacity determined. The following values were obtained:

	Early wood		Late		
	kg/cm ²	lb/in ²	kg/cm²	lb/in*	
	480	6837.5	1594	22573	
	430	6116.3	1116	15874	
	604	8591.3	1352	19231	
	<u>4</u> 90	<u>6969. </u>	1490	21194	
Mean	501	7126.2	1388	19743	

On testing additional strips from other annual rings, the tenacity increased to 2343 kg/cm² (35336.8 lb/in²), i.e. about the same value as for annealed copper. Reds of 15 mm diameter from the same tree, which on account of wheir larger cross-section contained wood from several annual rings, gave 517, 558 and 684 kg/cm², (7353.8, 7937 and 9739 lb/in²), or a mean tenacity of 586.3 kg/cm² (8339.5 lb/in²). These values correspond approximately to the indication obtained above by the cone test, that the annual rings consist of hard and soft components (Fig. 6), when it is considered that the tenacity of the complete annual ring must be somewhat smaller than the sum of the tenacities of its parts, because the instant of fracture, and hence she breaking load, is determined by the weaker part and therefore the tenacity of the stronger part is not fully utilized.

In the soft Bosnian pine wood under investigation, the proportion of hard late wood was a comparatively small part of the year's growth. For this reason, similar experiments were carried out with Oregon pine which has narrow rings, a much smaller spring zone and an abrupt transition from early to late wood, as shown in Fig. 7 (1.2 mag). Fig. 8 gives in a similar manner to Fig. 6, the hardness values as obtained by the cone test. The mean is 21.6 kg/mm² (30580 lb/in²) for the hard portion with a maximum of 24.5 kg/mm² (34563 lb/in²) falling to w minimum of 2.75 kg/mm² (3911 lb/in²) for the soft portion, hence similar to the values for the rine wood investigated - minimum 2.24 kg/mm² (3186 lb/in²).

Tensile tests with strips 0.4 to 0.5 mm (.0157 to .0197 in) thick and 1.4 to 4.4 mm wide, split from the hard portions, gave the following results: 4980, 4200, 4395 and 4056 kg/cm² (70835.5, 59741, 62514.5 and 57692.5 lb/in.2); mean 4408 kg/cm2 (62696 lb/in2); values usually obtained with good ingot iron, which is, however, much tougher. Rods of 15 mm (.59 in.) diameter, the section of which contained several annual rings gave tensile strengths of The results of 1122 and 1217 kg/cm² (15959 and 17311 lb/in²). these experiments show the considerable difference in the tenacities of the hard and soft portions of the annual rings, as well as the high tenacity of the hard parts.* They also demonstrate that an estimate of the tensile properties of the wood can only be obtained when the ratio between the hard and soft parts of the individual rings is taken into consideration, which, from the botanical point of view, might be expected.

This point of view is the more worthy of consideration, since the formation of the annual rings is influenced by many conditions, so that rings with little late wood and rings with a large amount of late wood may occur contiguously in the same tree.** This consideration attains importance, if general conclusions are to be

^{*}That wood fibers attain the tenacity of ingot iron has been shown by the writer in previous experiments with bamboo (Mitteilungen über Forschungsarbeiten, published by the Verein deutscher Ingenieure, Vol. 131, p. 46, in which tensile strengths of 3063 to 3843 kg/cm² were found for the outer layers.

^{**}It is known that weathering, camage to a tree, blight and other circumstances cause the formation of several rings within a calendar year. For the purpose under discussion, each definitely formed ring is naturally considered an annual ring even if it were actually formed in a shorter period than one year.

from the wood in the usual manner and containing only a small part of the trunk section.

As a typical example, experiments with ritch rine may be cited, a section of which is shown in Fig. 9 (1.2 mag). A rart of the rlank shows broad and another rart narrow rings. For the runces of the experiment the log was cut into two rarts, one of which contained chiefly broad rings, and the other chiefly narrow rings. The results of the tests obtained were as follows:

	Part with broad rings prepon- derating,	Part with narrow rings preponder-ating.
Coefficient of Elongation in bending.	1: 147,000 = 6.82 millionths	1 : 118,000 = 8.50 millionths
Transverse strength.	1260 kg/cm² 17922 lb/in²	986 kg/cm ² { 14025 lb/in ²
Energy required for fracture.	{ 0.5 kg-m/cm² { 23.33 lb-ft/in²	0.3 kg-m/cm ² {14 lb-ft/cm ²

According to the observations made above, one would have expected the narrow-ringed wood to be the more resistant. On the contrary, this table shows that the broad-ringed portion is the stronger. The change of shape under the same stress is smaller in the ratio of 6.82: 8.50 = 0.8 and the tensile strength in bending is 1.28 times greater, while the resistance to impact is also greater. The explanation of this is apparent when the two portions are examined under the microscope. Fig. 10 (12 mag) shows that in the narrow annual rings, the fraction of the hard late wood is much smaller than in the wide rings. This is very

clearly shown by Figs. 11 and 12 (150 magnification).

The decisive factor in determining the tenacity of similar wood is not, therefore, the breadth of the annual rings; but the proportion of hard to soft constituents in them. This applies to all coniferous woods (e.g., fir trees), because they generally possess a similar structure. Figs. 13, 14, 15 and 16 (1.2, 12 and 150 mag) show the sectional appearance of fir. The piece with narrow rings of late wood (Fig. 13) showed a strength of 421 kg/cm² (5983 lb/in²) under compression; while the tree with broad late wood (Fig. 14) gave compression strength of 711 kg/cm² (10113 lb/in²).

It appeared probable, therefore, that, as previously mentioned, the quality of the wood could be estimated in almost the same way by means of the density. Actually, this amounts in wood with narrow late rings to 0.42 g/cm³ (.34 cz/in³), and in wood with broad late rings, to 0.62 g/cm³ (.36 oz/in³). Figs. 9 and 10 also show that the structure of the wood in the same tree may vary considerably. The tree may contain a part of poor quality, without any indication of this in the mean density, though immediately apparent to the eye on examination of a planed section.

Certain leaf-bearing trees possess similar properties. For example, experiments carried out on ash wood may be cited. A log was cut from a twisted trunk so that different annual rings occurred at one end from those at the other end. One end contained mostly narrow rings, while at the other, there were both broad and

narrow rings. See Figs. 17 to 20 (1.2 and 12 magnifications). The test results contained were:

	Part with bread and narrow annual rings.	Part with narrow rings only.
Coefficient of elon- gation in bending,	1 : 980,000 = 10.21 millionths.	1:583,000 = 17.14 millionths.
Tensile strength.	1038 and 1520 kg/cm ² 114765 " 21620 lb/in ²	702 kg/cm² 9985 lb/in²
Compression strength.	674 kg/cm ² {9587 lb/in ²	443 kg/cm² 6301 lb/in²
Energy required for fracture.	{0.5 kg-m/cm² {23.33 lb-ft/in²	_

In this wood, which contained large open vessels in large numbers in the spring zone (See the pores in Figs. 19 and 20), the proportion of the large-pored spring wood was responsible for the small resistance of the narrow-ringed portion of the log. For the purpose of comparison, Figs. 21 and 22 (1.2 and 12 mag) show sections through superior quality ash wood, which gave the following values:

Coefficient of elongation in bending - 1: 174,000 to 1: 163,000 = 5.75 to 6.15 millionths.

Tensile strength - 1787 and 1505 kg/cm³ 25418 and 21407 lb/in²

Compressive strength - 1802 to 833 kg/cm² 11408 to 11849 lb/in²

Energy required to fracture - 1.2 and 1.4 kg-m/cm² 56 and 65.3 lb-ft/in²

A comparison of Figs. 19, 20 and 22 shows that in the case of ash also, examination of the section with regard to the proportion of

small and large-pored parts permits an estimation of the strength of the wood to be made, and the variation of the wood in the same tree is immediately apparent to the eye.*

Conditions are different in those leaf-bearing trees (such as lindens), which show an approximately uniform distribution of pores throughout the whole annual ring, for which Fig. 23 (12 magnification) serves as an example. These and other timbers will be dealt with later, as regards the behavior of the different types of wood when subjected to stresses perpendicular to the fibers.

Translated by National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics.

^{*} It should be noted that longitudinal sections are not suitable, as a rule, for the determination of comparative values, because, according as the section is more radial or more tangential to the annual rings, which are often wavy in outline, so the longitudinal strips corresponding to the annual rings become narrower or broader.



Fis. 1

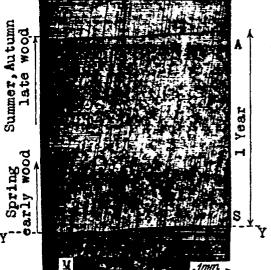


Fig. 2 12 Magnifications

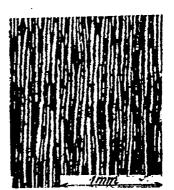
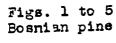


Fig. 4
30 Magnifications





Oregon pine

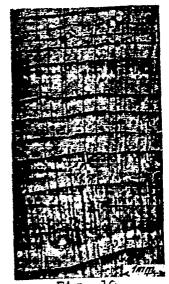
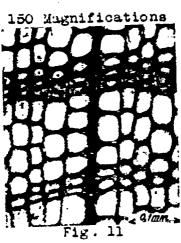
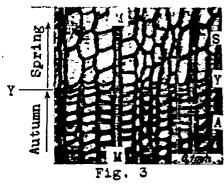


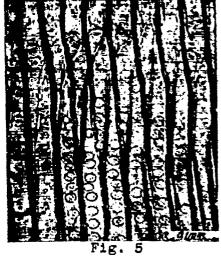
Fig. 10



Figs. 9 to 13 Pitch pine



150 Magnifications



150 Magnifications

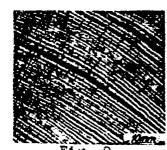
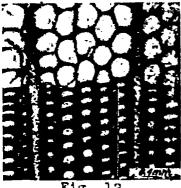
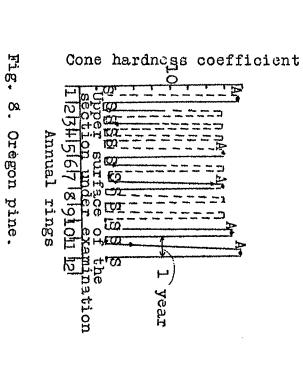


Fig. 9 1.2 Wagnifications



150 Magnifications.



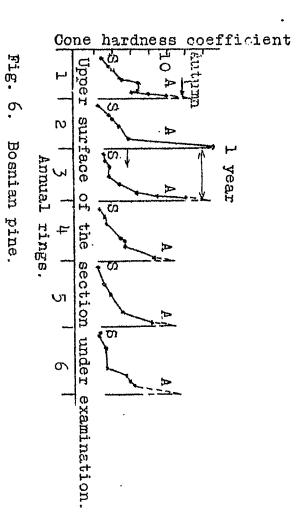
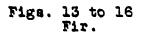




Fig.13. Fig.14. 1.2 Wagnifications



Fig.15. 12 Magnifications



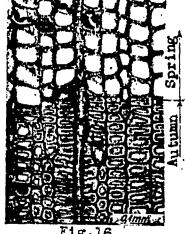


Fig.16.



ig.17. Fig.18.

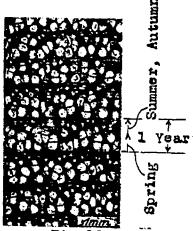


Fig.13. 12 Magnifications

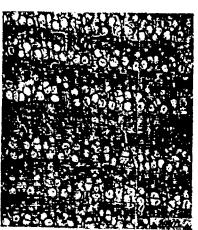


Fig. 20.



Fig.31.
1.2 Magnifications
Superior quality

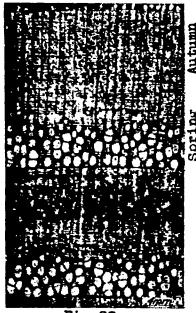


Fig.33. 13 Magnifications Superior quality

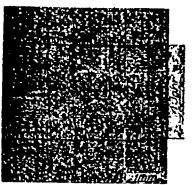


Fig. 33. 12 Magnifications

Figs. 17 to 22 Ash.

Fig. 23 Lingen.